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ABSTRACT

The historical development of inservice teacher education is traced in this paper and some comparisons are made between past and present school circumstances that bear on inservice practices. Eleven traditional methods of inservice teacher education are briefly described: (1) institutes; (2) reading circles; (3) summer school; (4) supervision; (5) classroom observations/demonstrations; (6) curriculum change; (7) workshops; (8) action research; (9) teacher centers; (10) sabbaticals; and (11) university coursework. (JD)

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ELEVEN TRADITIONAL METHODS OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Roger Neil

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Eleven Traditional Methods of Inservice Teacher Education

Early inservice teacher education, when it existed at all, was mandatory. Many teachers of the 19th century had only a superficial grasp of subject matter and they were regarded as generally incapable of reflecting upon and improving their own teaching (Tyack, 1967, p. 415). Typically, the American common school teachers of the 1800's had themselves merely graduated from an elementary school setting. Until the turn of the century, certificates of fitness by provincial or state governments assured the public only that the teacher could write, calculate some mathematics, and was considered of sound morals (Lazerte, 1951, p. 18).

Inservice for teachers of the 1800's consisted of mandatory Teachers' Institutes - which were conventions of one to three days. Speakers were invited to address the teachers on either inspirational topics or specific teaching subject concerns. These Teachers' Institutes served a stop-gap function in giving temporary relief to the pressing needs for teacher upgrading, before Normal schools gained acceptance (Richey, 1957, p. 42).

Clearly, however, inservice activities were first organized according to a deficit model - aimed at improving teachers' academic competency. Such a deficit model may be contrasted with other inservice activities that have since evolved toward a developmental model of ongoing professional growth (Holly and Blackman, 1983, p. 1).

While the "make 'em learn" remediation of a deficit model of inservice appears in sharp contrast with the supportive continuing education of a development model, perhaps both models stem from two more fundamental traditions of teacher education: 1. the academic tradition of subject specialization; 2. the professional tradition that nurtures general education as well as educational principles of learning (Cushman, 1977, p. 36).

Yet even after preservice teacher training had progressed from the imitative apprenticeship of common schools to Normal school training programs, serious discrepancies existed in the quality of these programs. (Corey, 1957, p.2). Inservice activities then expanded to complement irregular preservice training. Examples of these expanded inservice activities have been cited (Krug, 1972, p. 158-161):

1. Reading Circles - cooperative groups of teachers formed under a provincial teachers association or state department of instruction. The group bought approved books, discussed them and often wrote and shared reaction papers. These circles were semi-voluntary in nature, and were encouraged by certification renewal and upgrading.

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2. Summer School - entailed both general study and courses in the education field. Small town teachers often enjoyed the experience of college or university liberalism, and life in a larger centre. While some course work was demanded by local superintendents, much was purely voluntary. The ancestry of the summer school might be traced to the Chautaugua, Sunday school retreat or camp meetings.
3. Classroom Observation/Demonstration - Monroe (1913, p. 520) adds that another common inservice education practise took place as teachers intervisited one another's classrooms. Particular success apparently derived from the visiting teacher's focus upon distinct aspects of the class.
4. Curriculum Development - Most teacher education of the late 19th century disregarded that the school curriculum itself was evolving (Pangburn, 1932, pp. 70-72). However, the popular turn-of-the-century reference Cyclopedia of Education has stated that "one of the most significant agencies used for the training of teachers inservice is the making of the course of study" (Monroe, 1913, p. 519). Teachers were being enlisted to criticize and update the curriculum at their grade levels before local superintendents constituted change.
5. Sabbatical - A few districts even offered teachers interested in professional development a sabbatical year with half pay (Monroe, 1913, p. 520).

One may rightly wonder if inservice would have continued to develop along any of these lines had not provincial and state Normal schools for teacher training been made compulsory between 1850 and 1905 (Lazerte, 1951, p. 20-21). Conversely, in many cases, inservice courses served as precursors of Normal school coursework. In a sense, the summer schools and reading circles were testing trials for education curriculum at the Normals (Harris, 1976, p. 25-26).

In many areas, teachers of the era were being asked to address significant socio-economic pressures of the times: scientific progress in radio and later television was dissolving provincialism; home and church cooperation were losing dominance; industrial growth became expansive while handcrafts were lost; and as pride of production diminished, specialist roles were multiplying; political unrest was rampant on a global scale (Rogers, 1932, pp. 257-259). At the same time, Normal school graduates steadily became more aware of methods and pedagogy. Thus a previously narrow inservice emphasis on limited subject matter expanded to include pedagogy, literature, school gardening, vocational education, art, music and home economics as well as management according to "scientific" principles and the provision of correspondence courses (Harris, 1976, p. 180, Johnson, 1968, p. 20).

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In other ways professional development increased generally with: the more frequent publication of government circulars on education, as well as the proliferation of popular and professional magazines dealing with current education issues; the coordination of teachers' research efforts by bureaus of education; and growth of teachers' professional associations such as the P.E.A. (Kandel, 1966, p. 37).

By the 1920's admission requirements in Normal schools had risen, and by 1930 a high school certificate was required to enter teacher training college. From the mid-twenties until the 1940's, this growing professionalization, along with the burgeoning of psychological theories encouraged inservice to be conceived as an on-going research experiment (Schaefer, 1944), and to become less authoritatively managed, and more akin to guidance (Richey, 1957, pp. 58).

Also during this period (1920's - 1940's) teacher associations more frequently began to conduct intensive studies. Through the Normals, teacher's colleges and the new departments of education within universities, fresh inservice curricula were made available. Along with methods in special subjects, curriculum organization, training of principals and administrators, supervision, philosophy and psychology were offered. These broadened course offerings were for the most part still at the undergraduate level (Kandel, 1966, p. 36). School boards often subsidized such studies by bonuses, scholarships or increments in salary.

Along with the general growth in teachers' credentials and competence, came school district recognition of teachers worth in developing curriculum. In 1918, the key document Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education closely recommended that each school establish groups of teachers within a "principal's council". In addition to "fitting" the curriculum to individual students' needs, these "subject directors" were being called to at once expand and reorganize both their own and school level curriculum knowledge (Kingsley, 1918, pp. 27-28).

In a book chapter entitled The Hammers of Curriculum Revision, Krug (1972) informs us that many teachers of the 1930's and 40's were "hardened veterans of curriculum campaigns", brought in to the endeavour in part because of the current scientific management principle of involving employees in policy-making (Krug, 1972, p. 32). Between 1925 and 1940, curriculum revision came to be identified with in-service education; and at the same time as a kind of supervision. First existing as the strict observation of (elementary) teachers, supervision slowly took on a creative approach in curriculum planning with teachers (Newlon, 1929, p. 405). In some systems all teachers took part while in others a select group accomplished the revision, with release time (Krug, 1972, p. 33)

In the same period inservice remediation of teachers' perceived weaknesses was still attempted. Typical areas of concern were teachers' home

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background, their culture, or their breadth of preservice preparation. For such "weaknesses" supervisors still prescribed teacher institutes, reading circles or summer school remediation. For observed incompetence of teachers inservice, direct supervision was prescribed (Krug, 1972, p. 156)

A powerful lever in increasing the quantity of inservice activities has been seen to be the establishment of government certification. An example of this leverage would be the establishment of British Columbia's "permanent teaching certificates" in 1937 which was granted according to each teacher's course credits. Furthermore, most inservice activities were still aimed toward teachers whose students were suffering from their patchy preservice training (Corey, 1957, p. 2; Judd, 1940, p. 383). The complexion of inservice changed permanently in the 1940's and 1950's in another way — at last both elementary and secondary teachers were being trained together toward professional status (Johnson, 1967, p. 22). Less and less stigma of intellectual inferiority would be attached to the elementary teacher.

Inservice in the 1950's most often took the form of a workshop wherein teachers worked together with a resource person and a curriculum director. At the same time "action research" was undertaken by practitioners focusing on concrete problem situations, toward methodological resolution (Richey, 1957, pp. 62-63; Shumsky, 1958). Amid a serious shortage of teachers, growing pressure toward high achievement in "fundamental subjects, and racial integration struggles (Gumbert and Spring, 1974, pp. 38-39) inservice grew manifold through workshops, conferences and inter-agency planning groups, i.e. university professors of physics, teachers and parents (Church, 1976, p. 413; Cremin, 1961, p. 337). Also, new requirements for the academic status of teachers ballooned inservice growth. For example, the B.Ed. became a minimum requirement according to N.E.A. resolution (Tyack, 1967, p. 464). Consequently, inservice education became a central and promising endeavour of educators in the 1950's (Henry, 1957).

Yet in the 1960's this promise was largely diminished, both through the degeneration of teacher and administration cooperation into a hierarchal manipulation of "clinical supervision", and through the rapid expansion of the curriculum field (Joyce, 1981, p. 115). Inservice education may have waned because research shifted from practical field concerns to: 1. large-scale programming; 2. disregard of teacher evaluation with the emphasis on curriculum planning; 3. ignorance of the teacher's role; and 4. systematic management that glossed over underlying value assumptions (Connelly and Albaz, 1980). Large-scale programming of curriculum was paralleled by wide-ranging, generalized theorizing that cast teacher education programs as "models". Yet this drive failed to grasp teacher education in the field (Clarke, 1971, p. 154).

In more positive terms, inservice methods have been altered by recent evolution in preservice training facilities; that is the establishment of university faculties of education and graduate faculties of education.

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Teachers have increasingly been able to engage in university coursework for further qualifications, or toward a higher degree. An even broader range of coursework is being offered at distance and on campuses during weekends, evenings or summers.

Another new methodological solution to inservice problems came about in the late sixties and seventies. That is teacher centres became established, and they have been recognized as a major issue for progress in inservice (Schmieder and Yarger, 1974, p. 5; Hersh, 1978; Burke, 1980, pp. 228-234, Mertens, 1982). The teacher centre has been described as the meeting place of a mutually dependent community that wishes to take a critical look at their present practise. (Apelman, 1979; DeVaney, 1979, p. 21). In addition, Mertens (1982, p. 65) explains that teacher centres vary greatly in structure, but have generally evolved from the premise that teacher-perceived needs are the prime foundation for inservice education.

That America could gain insight from British inservice initiatives has been recently described by teachers from both countries who participated in an exchange between British and American teacher-centres. Among other things, the British centres were understood as more diverse, more autonomous, and more oriented to making curriculum change (Edelfelt and Hruska, 1982, pp. 80-88). The British respect and concern for inservice education is also indicated by the establishment (1976) of the sole journal of inservice activities The British Journal of Inservice Education.

In review, there have been eleven traditional methods of inservice teacher education (table 1). Between 1890 and 1920, Normal school graduates were altering the quality and directions of the teacher institutes by emphasizing methods and pedagogic principles. This thrust was followed by the "quantitative expansion" of inservice in the formation of summer schools, evening extension courses, classroom supervision, class demonstrations, correspondence courses and teachers' reading circles. From the 1920's until the 1940's experimentation and collegial guidance were the key motivators in curriculum development and inservice. Throughout the 1950's interest in inservice teacher education grew as workshops and action research proliferated. In the 1960's inservice practises narrowed in scope as behavioural managerialism grew along with the presentation pre-packaged materials. American educators of the mid 1970's until today have begun to realize the importance of inservice teacher education. This realization is deepened by socio-economic pressures and the failure of mechanical programming to evoke constructive educative change.

In comparing past and present school circumstances that directly bear on inservice practices, we see more similarities than differences. Commonly, economic uncertainty and stress has existed, as have heavy class responsibilities of teachers, the complex nature of teaching, the isolation of the teacher's work world, and the constant change of curriculum. Teacher preparation standards were less uniform in the past, and certainly stronger teacher organizations now hold continuing education expectations.

Three general outcomes of present staff development have been cited: 1) change in classroom practices; 2) change in teachers beliefs and attitudes; 3) change in learning outcomes of students (Guskey, 1986, p. 6). A development model relates to all three, while a deficit model is directly involved only with one outcome — the learning of students (due to teachers' faults). Nevertheless, Pratt (1987) points out that educational development must transcend one-sided humanistic and technical orientations because the culture of the classroom is neither — it is traditional. If inservice education is to contribute to that tradition, it will enable teachers to improve teaching, encourage students to better learning, and improve and renew curriculum materials. If we make an effort to engage in many methods of inservice teacher education then, ever-changing classroom needs may be better met. Now, however, most traditional methods of inservice (such as reading circles, collegial supervision, classroom demonstrations, action research) are lying dormant.

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TABLE 1

Eleven Traditional Methods of Inservice Education

<u>Institutes:</u>	Conventions with invited inspirational or subject-specific speakers; one to three days in duration; attendance mandatory.
<u>Reading Circles:</u>	Cooperative groups of teachers, formed under a provincial teacher's association or state department of education; approved booklists were read, discussed and reaction papers written; semi-voluntary, sometimes involving certificate renewal.
<u>Summer School:</u>	Involved general study courses and education courses; some coursework demanded by superintendents; most voluntary.
<u>Supervision:</u>	Often aimed at correcting teachers' defects in knowledge or methods; usually at elementary level or by principal in high schools; mandatory. The complexion of supervision seems to shift between inspection and inspiration.
<u>Classroom Observations/ Demonstrations:</u>	Teachers intervisit one another's classrooms, to focus constructively upon areas of strength; voluntary.
<u>Curriculum Change:</u>	Teachers being called upon at both school and district levels, to formulate and update curricula in their areas of speciality.
<u>Workshops:</u>	Teachers work together with a curriculum director and resource people to improve and update resources and methods; usually voluntary.
<u>Action Research:</u>	Undertaken by practising teachers to focus on concrete problems in the classroom setting; discussions, dispersal of findings about methodological solutions; voluntary.
<u>Teacher Centres:</u>	Local organizational centers, usually outside the school itself, where curriculum is developed and creative methods are communicated and diffused; voluntary.
<u>Sabbatical:</u>	Districts enabling teachers interested in professional development to leave the classroom for a year without loss of job or full pay; voluntary.
<u>University Coursework:</u>	Many degree and non-degree credit/non-credit courses are presently offered to teachers inservice. Weekend, evening and summer classes offer a broad range to campuses and in distance delivery; voluntary.